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THE ART OF SPEAKING THE TRUTH.

II.

ANOTHER reason for untruthfulness in conversation is that we do not well enough understand the force of words. Our attention has often been called to the tendency in young people, and this tendency is by no means confined to young people, to use adjectives and interjections of the strongest kind on very ordinary occasions—to deal habitually in words disproportionate to the ideas they wish to convey. The worst thing about this is not, it seems to me, that when we really have occasion for strong expressions we find our vocabulary exhausted, although that might be inconvenient, it is that we lose respect for words, the line between truth and falsehood becomes obliterated, and language fails of its legitimate function. Just as when one sits down day after day to a table overloaded with all sorts of dainties, one loses his relish for food, the most exquisite dish from being seen so often and in such inappropriate conjunction becomes unpalatable and the appetite fails miserably, you have mental dyspepsia, and language loses its deep significance in dissipation. An exclusive diet of bran bread will ruin the digestion as surely as an unwise profusion of rich food; so that other class of people who make a single word or phrase

do duty in describing everything that comes into the cognizance of the five senses, fail of an intelligent, conscientious use of language, and find in time their ideas dwindling to suit their mode of expression, their sensitiveness to truth growing dull, and their whole moral nature taking a step downward.

"It is not enough thought of," says some one quoting from Coleridge, "that 'accuracy of style is near akin to veracity and truthful habits of mind,' and to sincerity and earnestness of character." "Not enough thought of;"—our faithful educators labor to give their pupils a thorough understanding of the subjects they teach, but forget, often, how much a clear expression helps to promote intelligent ideas, and do not give enough attention to the language which should be an accurate measure of the progress and proficiency of these pupils.

Arithmetic is a subject universally taught in the schools: it is an exact science, and we Americans have a respect for it; perhaps only because it is so intimately connected with dollars and cents, for who but a teacher ever thinks of its being founded upon eternal principles? But if the teacher remembers it, the boys and girls may come to see something of the beauty of straight lines and correct estimates in the moral world. The language of arithmetic, the mathematical definitions and the rules, whose correctness may be so easily demonstrated by the processes depending upon them, I find an excellent specific for the careless use of words. It may be one object of studying arithmetic to "sharpen the wits," but a more important object is to clear away the mists from the brain, to enable the pupil to develop his ideas with order and precision and also to express them exactly. It is the logic of the lower schools. So, in teaching it, I would give quite as much time and attention to the recitation of rules and definitions, the expounding of principles and the explanation of processes as to the performance of examples or the solution of problems.

There is, indeed, not a recitation in school but ought to do something toward forming the language of the pupil. His stock of words is at first necessarily small; as his ideas expand his reasoning powers develop, and his knowledge in-

creases, he gathers new words from intercourse with his books, his teacher and his class-mates. It is the duty of the teacher to see that this progress in language keeps pace with his progress in other things. If it does not, how soon the student comes to resort to subterfuges and makeshifts in order to express himself in conversation, or his ideas dwindle away to suit the forms of expression he has at command. Just now, while the formative process is going on, while the boy is yet under the eye of a master is the time for him to learn to put the right word in the right place, and that it makes a botch of things to put it anywhere else. The limits of this paper will allow me to give only the merest hints of means and methods: indeed it is meant to be only suggestive. I am convinced that the proper use of language should occupy a much more prominent place in the education of our children than it does now. I believe with St. James, that when a man has come to "offend not in word the same is a perfect man and able to bridle the whole body." I would briefly notice one or two other usual studies which seem peculiarly fitted to teach an honest use of the mother tongue.

In almost all our schools—in the least pretentious of our villages, we find a class of young people studying some foreign language; and this ought to be a benefit to their own English tongue. If by lessons in arithmetic one may learn something of the force of words and the obligation he is under to use them discreetly, the pupil may find in translation a means of enlarging his vocabulary and increasing his command of words and expressions. The advantages that faithful translation offers, to give a larger and more liberal language, as well as a better and more accurate use of terms, has been talked about so much by the friends of the ancient classics, and by the friends of the modern languages, that anything I can say upon this subject seems trite. And yet it is a rare thing even now to go inside a school-room and hear a class render Virgil or even the anecdotes of the Reader into pure and pleasant English. Foreign idioms done into literal English are simply ridiculous, and the man or woman who cannot teach his pupils to render good Latin, German and French into decent English, had

better leave the languages altogether out of his curriculum

"Think," says President Buckham of the University of Vermont, "what an admirable discipline in English would be a faithful translation of Virgil, that most shamefully maltreated of all the school classics! Nothing is easier than to run the words together into the form of a sentence; but to find English words wherewith to express Virgilian thoughts; to reproduce in pure English idiom that 'rich economy of expression;' to be able to look on his picture and then on yours, and say you are satisfied—that is a task which will compel you to sweep the whole horizon of English in quest of its choicest words and expressions, and which will only bring you as your highest reward an intelligent appreciation of the difficulty, the impossibility of complete success." The same scholarly man recommends to the schools frequent and systematic exercises in English composition as a means of improvement in the use of language. "Nothing," he says, "contributes so much to clearness, precision, pointedness and elegance in language as much practice with the pen." And yet I have noticed in the compositions of boys and girls at school the same looseness with regard to facts, the same sweeping generalizations, the same carelessness with regard to truth that distinguishes so much of our newspaper writing. It is with the young boy or girl in the Grammar or High School, as it is with the penny-a-liners in the world of affairs. They are quite ready to sacrifice sense to sound; they would rather reply to an opponent with a good hit than to meet his arguments fairly; they think more of a brilliant paragraph than a conscientious one. Is there not an opportunity here for faithful teachers to do the world good service in convincing these young people that it would be better to forever hold their peace than to fling words about in a thoughtless and dishonest way? I would instil into their minds the sterling doctrine of that old trumpeter, Thomas Carlyle. "For if a good speaker—an eloquent speaker—is not speaking the truth, is there a more horrid kind of object in creation?—Excellent speaker! but what if he is telling me things that are untrue, that are not the fact about it—if he has no judg-

ment in his mind to form a right conclusion in regard to the matter? An excellent speaker of that kind is, as it were, saying, 'Ho, every one that wants to be persuaded of the thing that is not true, come hither!'

So in correcting a composition, I would carefully prune away every unnecessary adjective, every rhetorical flourish; I would go further, and question the matter of the composition: where I found impressions put down as if they were facts I would send the writer to looking up his authorities. I would not, of course, insist on his taking my notions of truth, but that the inferences, conclusions, judgments, should be his own genuine thoughts, and that he should be able to give an intelligent reason for them. As to the language, it should be free from slang—the best at the writer's command and used mainly with a view to making himself understood.

Frequent written examinations on every school subject are regarded by our best teachers as invaluable aids in securing accuracy. The written paper is not only a test of scholarship, but an excellent means of making the pupil aware of his faults and deficiencies. There is nothing more convincing to the positive pupil than a statement in his own handwriting with the teacher's estimate of its value marked in figures upon it, placed before his eyes. The light that will dawn upon the mind of a student who has been accustomed to think well of his attainments, upon a first occasion of this kind, is sometimes overwhelming; but the discipline is very wholesome. But when the classes are large, frequent written examinations are often impracticable. It is a good thing then to have the daily recitation occasionally written out upon the board, or to require one or two of the pupils, different ones upon each day, to write out some of the topics of the review or the advance lesson. Is it not a good thing for our enthusiastic, blundering, boys and girls to serve an apprenticeship of two, four, eight, ten years at an institution where they will have the benefit not only of regular and reasonable work, but of the opinion of a master upon that work and the manner of its performance, given regularly, professionally and systematically in a way that they cannot fail to understand?

Of course all this supposes that the teacher himself is honest and knows something of his own obligations to the truth. "The written rule," some one has said, talking about another matter, "is of little use, is scarcely intelligible until we have seen it reduced to practice by one who can practice it easily and make its justice apparent. The ease and readiness of the master are infections; the pupil as he looks on conceives a new hope, a new self-reliance; he seems already to touch the goal which before appeared removed to a hopeless distance." So if the teacher be a sincere man, candid and open in dealing with his pupils, his "words and deeds of a piece," if he have a scholar's genuine reverence for truth, he may do more for his pupils than to teach them ways and means; he may inspire them with a love of honesty, single mindedness, and sincerity, and with a suitable contempt for shams, subterfuges and insincerity. He may teach them to separate the real from the false heroes in history, and to set for themselves worthy objects in life.

F. K. K.

USEFULNESS OF THE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

THE subjoined letter by Prof. G. W. Atherton, of Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J., appeared first in the *New York Tribune* of Aug. 22d. It has been quite extensively commented upon, and we reproduce it as the best account of the work accomplished by the Agricultural Colleges which we have seen.

In the paper read before the National Educational Association, at Elmira, on the evening of the sixth instant, on the subject of the "Relation of the General Government to Education," I had occasion to show that the institutions founded on the basis of the Congressional land grant of 1862, and the commonly, though erroneously, called "Agricultural Colleges," were doing an amount of work for popular education which was not only far greater than the public in general supposed, but greater than could reasonably have

been expected of institutions which have been in existence in many cases only a few months, and, on the average, less than five years. For one item, I stated that twenty-four (24) of these institutions contained last year two thousand six hundred and four (2,604) students. A distinguished gentleman present inquired how this large number was made up, and whether or not it included all students in the institutions with which in some cases the so-called agricultural colleges were associated, specifying particularly Cornell University and the Sheffield Scientific school. I had great pleasure in replying that the figures had been taken from advance sheets of the forthcoming report of the United States Department of Agriculture, kindly furnished me by the Commissioner, in which the students were classified as, first, "Number of Students in the Agricultural and Mechanical College for the collegiate year," and, second, "Number of Students in the University and Agricultural and Mechanical College for the collegiate year;" but that without referring to my documents I could not reply in detail respecting any one institution. I had no doubt, however, since the Department at Washington had made up its tables on the basis of this division of students into two classes—agricultural and mechanical students forming a class of themselves—that Cornell University and all others, were put upon the same footing, and their students classified in the same way. The gentleman who had propounded the inquiry replied that this was "unsatisfactory," which I have no doubt was true. Since reaching home and getting access to my papers, I have taken pains to verify this point, and find the case to be as I had supposed. Cornell University, for instance, is set down as having 207 students in the Agricultural and Mechanical College, and 525 in these Colleges and the University, or, as it might be stated, 207 students in the agricultural and mechanical departments, and 318 in the other departments. In case of the Sheffield Scientific school, 157 are given as belonging to the agricultural and mechanical departments, and 809 as belonging to these and the whole University. This, of itself, does not indicate whether the number 157 includes all the students in the Sheffield school or not. But I find that the

catalogue of Yale College for 1871-72 gives 174 as the number belonging to the Scientific school, 27 of whom are "special" or "graduate" students. It seems probable, therefore, that the 157 mentioned are intended to include all except these 27. The number 157 is a clerical or typographical error, obviously, for 147. How many of these should be reckoned as receiving the benefit of the Congressional land grant it may be difficult to say. Certainly not all of them. But any deduction that needs to be made on this account is much more than made up from other sources. The Illinois Industrial University, for example, is set down as having 194 students in the "Agricultural and Mechanical Colleges," or departments, and 381 all told. But here, in estimating the number of students who are receiving an education by the aid of the Congressional grant (and that is the real question in each case), we should include the entire number 381, for the reason that all the funds of this institution have been accumulated on the basis of that grant, and directly in consequence of it. The same is true in several other instances. It is a distinct fallacy, too, not to put it too strongly, to convey the implication that the usefulness of these institutions is to be tested by the question, how many of their students are studying "Agriculture," or how many "farmers" have they turned out? the true test is indicated by the terms of the act of Congress of 1862, which terms are generally repeated in the State laws relating to these institutions. In establishing these institutions Congress declared its design to be to provide a "liberal and practical education for the industrial classes, in their several pursuits and professions in life;" and to this end the institutions were to teach, not necessarily manual farming, but "subjects related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." It is the more important to note this, because the fallacy mentioned is partly suggested by the misleading name "Agricultural College," and lies at the bottom of the popular misapprehension as to what any institution of learning aims to do, or can do. The enemies of the colleges perfectly understand this, and are therefore likely to repeat the fallacy until the good sense of the public makes them ashamed to do so.

—G. W. Atherton.

ERRORS IN THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

III.—MISAPPLICATIONS.

WE noticed in our last article a few instances of erroneous omissions of prepositions. We purpose now to give examples of misapplied prepositions. One thing that is remarkable among these misapplications is the fact that in certain cases the preposition employed is, in meaning, just the opposite of that which the idiom or the sense calls for. This will be seen as we proceed.

AMID or AMIDST.—This word implies, if not a plurality of objects, at least certain surroundings in the midst of which objects can be regarded as being or acting; as, amidst his engagements; amidst the waves; amidst the storm; amidst the crowd; amidst the grass. In the following line, however, it is improperly used for *in*:

“One day *amid* the place,” etc.—*Watts*.

In the following example it is misused for *among*; “*Amidst* all these books I cannot find the one I want.”

AMONG or AMONGST.—This is a word of similar import, but differs from *amidst* in always referring to a number of objects; as, among the ships; among the stars; among the people; among the faithless. It is, however, sometimes improperly used for *amidst* or *in*, as in the following examples: “We were almost separated from society *among* [amid] lovely and romantic scenery.”—*Irving*. “She alone was miserable *among* [amidst] contentment and happiness.”—*Edward Garrett's “Dead Sin,”* p. 100. “Then he came out silently *among* [amidst or in the midst of] the crowd of worshippers.”—*Ditto*, p. 140. “He made his way *among* [amidst or through] the long grass.”—*Ditto*, p. 142. “He was lost *among* [in] the crowd.”

AT.—This is frequently misused for *in* in connections like the following: “He died *at* Paris on the fifth of June.” The impropriety here lies in using a preposition that implies a limited space for one implying comparatively larger bounds. If the place spoken of, instead of being a notoriously large city, were a comparatively small place, or so

far distant as to be readily so considered, then *at* should be used instead of *in*; as, "They live *at* Port Jervis;" "He died *at* Hong Kong during the plague." But "He died *at* Paris" is hardly more appropriate than "He died *at* France." This error appears twice in the following sentence: "In 1810 he published the first number of the Sketch Book *at* New York, and the two volumes, so familiar to our eyes, *at* London in 1820."—*Sat. Rev.*

BY.—The following singular use of *by* for *to* appears in A. R. Hope's book on "Dominies:" "I cling *by* old traditions." This preposition is not unfrequently improperly employed for *with* after a verb, in connection with a noun denoting the instrument or means rather than the agent or doer: "He shall slay thy people *by* [with] the sword." Occasionally, it is improperly used after an adjective for some other preposition in consequence of the writer's regarding such adjective as participial in character. The following sentence illustrates this: "Much gratitude will be due *by* [from] others besides the writer."—*Pref. to Holmes's First Lessons in Eng. Gram.*

FOR.—In New England the expression "named for" is widely used instead of "named after." Thus Worcester, in defining NAMESAKE, says, "One who is named *for*, or has the same name with, another." And Hawthorne writes "He named his two children, one *for* Her Majesty, and the other *for* Prince Albert." This rather implies that the children were not named for themselves, but that the names given them were for others, who, singularly enough, had names of their own already. The time-honored English expression, however, is "named after"—not *after* in point of time, though this sense is not inadmissible, but *after* in the sense of *from*, or perhaps *in consideration of*, or *out of regard for*. The following example illustrates this: "Thou hast had already seven husbands, neither wert thou named *after* any of them."—*Tobit*, iii. 8. Sometimes, however, *from* is used in this connection instead of *after*. Thus,

"I lay the deep foundations of a wall,
And Ænos, named *from* me, the city call."—*Dryden*.

FROM.—After the word *exception*, denoting that which is

excepted, Dr. Johnson says *from* should be used. In accordance with this, we find Dr. Campbell, for example, speaking in his Rhetoric of "exceptions *from* the rule." But for this direction Dr. Johnson gives no reason. Whether he was governed or not by the notion that a word compounded with *ex* requires to be followed by *from*, we cannot say. The notion, however, is a false one. The practice of English writers generally is against Johnson and Campbell in this respect. *To* is the word commonly and properly used in this connection :

"That proud exception *to* all nature's laws."—*Pope*.

Under other meanings of the word *exception* the preposition *against*, as well as *to*, is admissible. In no case, at least in the English of the present day, is "exception *from*" idiomatic.

"Averse *from*" is a similar Latinism which Johnson prefers to "averse *to*." But "the prevailing and best modern usage is in favor of *to*, instead of *from*," in this connection as well as in the other.

The following sentence presents an unusual misuse of *from* for *of*: "They were within about three miles *from* Kinston."—*Cor. N. Y. Herald*, Dec. 20, 1862. *From* would be correct if the preceding word *within* were omitted. But as the sentence stands, *of* is the word the writer should have used in place of *from*.

IN and INTO.—The employment of these prepositions, one for the other, is frequent enough among the uneducated: "When do you go *in* business?" "There is a nail *into* the board." Occasionally, however, persons who aspire to being authors may be found erring in the use of one or both of these words. Gardner, in his "Music of Nature," speaks of "the continued roll of the artillery bursting *into* terrific explosions." Swinton, in his "Rambles among Words," says, "These papers I have not incorporated *in* the present volume." And Edward Garrett, in "Premiums Paid to Experience," has "I had never come *in* much personal contact with the man."

OF.—This word is improperly applied in the phrase "Of all others;" as, "The morning *of* all others when we need

milk the most, it is not to be had." It should be "*above* all others." The error is an exceedingly common one, and is made by very many who pass for good speakers and writers. The following are additional examples: "He was glad to meet such a large [so large a] crowd of representative commercial men, as they *of* all other classes in the community could probably most effectually aid him in the attainment of his object."—*Gen. Hancock, as reported in N. Y. Times, Feb. 16, 1864.* "The language with which Rask was dealing was the one *of* all others wherein the difference in question required to be accurately drawn."—*Dr. Latham, Ethnological Essays.*

In such phrases as "of an afternoon," "of an evening," *of* should be *in* or *on*. The expression, it is true, is employed by some of our most popular writers. Washington Irving, for instance, employs it again and again: "Sometimes she would be seen late *of* an [in the] evening sitting in the porch of the village church;" "It is a pleasant sight *of* a Sunday morning to behold," etc. This, however, does not argue its correctness.

Sometimes *of* is used where *in*, meaning *on the part of*, is the word required, as in the following sentence from Moon's preface to the fourth edition of "The Dean's English:" "Surely, after this, it will be only modest *of* the Dean to retire from the office of lecturer on the Queen's English." Mr. Moon is generally pretty correct; but he certainly errs in sanctioning by his example such a use of *of*. The applications of this preposition are sufficiently numerous and various without adding to them by using it in this sense.

Occasionally *of* is misapplied for *for*. Here is an instance: "The history of this island presents continual pictures of the miseries and poverty produced by the grasping avidity *of* [for] gold."—*Irving's Columbus.* If we wish to describe the character or nature of the avidity, it is right to introduce the descriptive adjunct with the preposition *of*; as, "the avidity *of* desire." But when we speak of the object towards which one's avidity goes out, *for* should introduce the supplementary adjunct—"avidity *for* wealth." A similar distinction should, also, be made in reference to certain other words. But of this by and by, perhaps.

In the following sentence *of* is misused for *over*: "You are less amply supplied with abstracts of voyages over these regions than *of* many other parts of the ocean."—*Capt. Phinney, as quoted by Maury, Phys. Geog. of Sea*, p. xiii. The writer seemingly designed the connection to be "abstracts . . . *of* many other parts," etc. But the "abstracts" referred to were not abstracts of seas, but of voyages; and the true meaning is "of voyages *over* many other parts of the ocean."

Among other misapplications of this preposition which might still be mentioned is the using of it instead of *to*. Here is an example: "We should not make any statement inconsistent with or contradictory *of* some other statement at some distance before it."—*Kerl, Treatise on Eng. Lang.*, p. 456. This should be "contradictory *to*," as in the following sentence from Addison's "Freeholder:" "The schemes of those gentlemen are most absurd and contradictory *to* common sense."

ON or UPON.—Only the other day we read, in a morning paper, "The net looks a frail tenure whereon to trust the great weight which is to depend," etc. We "trust *to* or *in*" not "*on*" an object. "Whereon to trust" should have been "whereto to trust." In the same article also occurs the following misuse of *on* for *against*: "The bumping of the balloon *on* the chafe-cloth tends to crack this varnish." "Bump *against*" is the idiomatic form, not "bump *on*."

In the following example *upon* is misused for *from*: "It is a careful constitutional history of England *upon* the accession of George the Third down to the present time."—*Mass. Teacher for 1863*, p. 334. *Upon* in this connection is equivalent to *at the time of*; but it is evident that the writer means that the history reaches *from* the accession of George the Third, and he should have said what he meant in proper language.

In certain connections *on* is sometimes misused for *of*. Thus: "He wishes to use only the interest *on* his money." Money is let out *on* interest; but the premium paid for the use of the money is the interest, the earnings, *of* the money. —After the word *independent*, *on* was formerly, and is still occasionally, used, simply from the fact that we say "de-

pendent *on*." But there is scarcely any accounting for idioms. The usage of the best writers of English is at present against *on*, and in favor of *of*: "The town of St. Gaul is a Protestant republic, independent *of* the abbot."—*Addison*. In the following instance, if *yesterday* is an adverb, *on*, as was shown in our first paper, is redundant; if it is a noun, *on* should be *of*: "The cavalry fight *on* [of] yesterday proves to have been very obstinate." Either omit *on*, or, which is better, use *of*; but don't indulge in such a phrase as "on yesterday."

OVER.—It has become quite common to say and write, "over his signature," where formerly "under his signature" was the only known form of the expression. This has undoubtedly grown out of the fact that, in signing a paper, we write our name at the end, and hence under the letter or article receiving our signature. Of the statements contained in a paper so signed, it is natural enough, perhaps, to say that they were made "*over* the writer's signature." In this view of the case, we are not disposed to censure those who use this form of words, especially if they do it from force of habit or without thought as to its propriety. But we smile at the punctiliousness of those who do it with the express aim of being correct. As for ourselves, we never say "over" one's signature. We are conservative enough to prefer the other, the only classical form of the expression. And, indeed, if candidly viewed with reference to its origin, there can be no objection to it. On the contrary, its propriety becomes apparent. Formerly in England all edicts, grants, or letters-patent received the royal signature or sign-manual, as it is called, *at the top* of the instrument, the validity of which was completed by having the king's seal also impressed beside the signature, the instrument itself following on literally *under* the king's "hand and seal." So, too, with many private papers. Hence the expression, "*Under* one's signature." In process of time, however, as the place of the signature and seal became changed, the expression "Under my hand and seal," or "Under his signature," having acquired a conventional meaning, and conveying the idea of acknowledgment and authorization, it was, and in legal transactions invariably is still, retained.

A case nearly parallel with this we have in the phrase "Under date," say, of January 1st. Originally, the date of letters was uniformly placed at the top of the sheet, so that the contents of a letter dated, we will suppose, "January 1st, 1345," were literally "given *under* date of January 1st." Afterwards, however, it became quite common to date letters at the end, some preferring this to putting the date at the beginning. And though the practice has never become universal, as may be said to be the change in regard to the place of one's signature and seal, yet no one, we presume, ever thinks of speaking of "receiving advices from Smith & Co. *over* date of January 1st," even though the dating of the letter, as well as the signature, may appear at the bottom. Again, in our popular magazines and weekly papers, a writer's name, though it may not be strictly speaking his signature, very often stands at the head of an article, denoting of course that the person named is the author of it. Anything in such an article might very properly be said to appear "*under* Mr. So-and-so's signature." It would, in fact, literally be *under* his printed name, and presumably *under* his authority that the article appears in type as speaking his thoughts. In short, the use of the word *under* in the phrase "Under his signature," is not only well established, but altogether just and proper. There is really no good reason for squeamishness in regard to its use. One might as well object to saying that he had just received news from London "under date" of October 15th, because the letter containing the news happens to be dated at the bottom!

TO.—The misapplications of this word are numerous. We notice only a few of them. Gibbon, for example, in the following sentence, strangely enough uses it for *for*: "It is not easy to conceive that in substituting the manners of Persia *to* those of Rome, Diocletian was seriously actuated by vanity."—*Decline and Fall*, Chap. xii. Archbishop Whately uses it in the following sentence for *of*: "To solicit is simply to make a request *to* some one whom we address as our superior."—*Eng. Synonyms*, p. 40. Dr. Campbell uses it for *on* or *with* in saying "You have put it out of his power by engaging his attention *to* something else."—*Phil. of Rhet.* Macaulay employs it for *at* when he speaks of

"putting up their favors *to* auction."—*Miscel.*, Vol. I., p. 356. Dean Alford uses *to* for *with* after the word *contrast*: "in contrast *to*;" "to contrast one thing *to* another," and defends it thus: "Contrast partakes of two ideas, that of opposition and that of comparison. Now we oppose one thing *to* another, and we (commonly) compare one thing *with* another. Still, as the idea of opposition is, beyond question, the prevalent one, I should prefer *contrast to*."—*Queen's Eng.*, p. 196. We should, however, reason in regard to it somewhat thus: When we "compare" *dissimilar* things we use *to*; as, a ship *to* a woman, a man *to* a pendulum, anger *to* fire. When we compare *similar* things, we use *with*; as, Cicero *with* Demosthenes, a translation *with* its original, small things *with* great, one word *with* another. Now we always "contrast" similar things, or things of a similar class or nature, to note their difference. If, therefore, the same rule is to govern us in contrasting as in comparing objects, we should contrast *with*; as light *with* darkness, generosity *with* meanness, a palace *with* a cottage, John's conduct *with* James's. So, likewise, we should say "In contrast *with*:" "A yellowish white sheet of paper in contrast *with* one of pure whiteness, appears exceedingly dingy." Good writers, however, are divided upon this point.

A strange misuse of *to* for *from* appears in a sentence already given in part: "The net looks a frail tenure whereon to trust the great weight which is to depend *to* it." If a weight is pendent, it depends *from*, not *to*, something.—English people make a sad mistake in saying "different *to*" for "different *from*." Here is an example from the *London Times*: "During Swift's second residence with Sir William Temple, he had become acquainted with an inmate of Moor Park very different *to* the accomplished man to whose intellectual pleasures he so largely ministered." Charlotte Brontë's writings abound with examples of this error: "A cousin, you know, is different *to* a stranger."—*Shirley*, p. 189. "Then I was very different *to* what I am now."—*Do.*, p. 385. Edward Garrett, too: "He was a very good boy, quite different *to* poor Alan."—*Premiums Paid*, p. 184. This misuse of *to*, though a few years ago scarcely known in this country, has of late become quite common, and needs to be

carefully guarded against. It is really no better than "to differ *to*" would be, which happily is not in use. There is, however, a worse combination, if possible, than "different to," which is used by the uneducated in this country, and should be eschewed by every one who has the least desire to speak correctly. It is "different *than*:" "Was the singing to-night any different *than* usual?" "We returned a different way *than* we came." In all such cases, after *different* use *from*, never *to* or *than*. "Was the singing to-night any different from what it usually is?" "We returned a different way from that by which we came."

WITH.—This is also variously misapplied. The following sentences afford instances: "A sovereign's first duty is to conform *with* the wishes of his people."—*Abbott's Napoleon*. Muller, in his "Science of Language," speaks of the cockscomb's being "so called from its similarity *with* a cock's comb." Dr. Trall, in a little book which he has recently published, speaking of his own views, says "These are in direct antagonism *with* the doctrines taught in the text-books." In all these cases, *to* is the word that should have been used instead of *with*.

The following illustrates an exceedingly common misuse of *with* for *by*—the converse of the misuse of *by* for *with*, already noticed: "Like many others, the deacon was unconsciously blinded *with* selfishness." The idiom of the language needs to be carefully observed and followed here.

But we have already prolonged this paper far beyond our original design. We trust, however, it has not been without profit. There are yet other instances of misapplications, and instances of the misuse of other words in connection with certain prepositions, to which we may give an additional paper in a future number of this journal.

S. W. W.

JUDGE JOHN M. LEE, of Nashville, has just given a beautiful locality in the suburbs of Nashville as the site for the Tennessee School for the Blind, paying the sum of \$15,000 for the ground, which, from its high eminence, occupies a commanding view of the city and the picturesque scenery of the surrounding country.

ENFORCED EDUCATION.

A WRITER in the *Massachusetts Teacher* for September, says: "More than eleven thousand persons in this State, between the ages of ten and twenty-one years, were reported to the census office in 1870, as unable to read and write, and of this number, more than one-half were over fifteen years of age. How much or how little is known of other branches of elementary education, we are not informed. Between 1850 and 1870 the total population of the State increased less than 50 per cent. The aggregate number of persons of all ages that could not read and write increased, during the same time, more than 350 per cent." An estimate made by the State Superintendent of Pennsylvania, places the number of children in that State, growing up in ignorance, at 75,000. The State Superintendent of Illinois says: "What then shall be said of our figures for 1872, which record the fact that, in a total enumeration of 882,693 between six and twenty-one, only 693,833 are reported as having attended any school public or private, during any part of the year; leaving 185,860, or twenty-one per cent. of the whole enumeration, in no school. After making allowance for those over sixteen who have completed their common school education, and for invalid children, and for probable shortage in the reports of private schools, and all other reasonable deductions, it may be estimated that not less than 100,000 children of lawful school age, or over eleven per cent. of the whole number belonged to the class of absentees and truants during the last school year." Extracts of similar import might be made from nearly every State report, but enough has been said to give an idea of the extent to which absenteeism prevails, and to prove that the 4,528,084 illiterates in the United States are not found alone in the South and far West, but that the most prosperous States contribute their full quota to this vast army of ignorance.

This is rather an unsatisfactory exhibit when we consider that in 1871, the three States above mentioned spent over \$21,000,000 for educational purposes. It would be thought

that the expenditure of such an immense sum would secure the education of all children of school age. There are, however, good reasons why some, at least, of these children belong to the class of absentees. Many are obliged to care for themselves at an age when they should be attending school, and the labor of others is needed to help support the families to which they belong. Another class, and by far the largest, is composed of those who do not care for education, and who are permitted, through the negligence of their parents, to idle away their time. These we fail to reach, and the most ardent supporter of our school system must admit that, in that respect, it is a failure. It will probably be readily admitted that the State has a deep interest in reducing, so far as possible, the number of its uneducated citizens. Statistics from the reports of social science and prison associations demonstrate that illiteracy is connected with pauperism and crime, as cause and effect. Ignorance recruits the dangerous classes, while education diminishes them. Where education is wholly intellectual it teaches that honesty is the best policy, that fraud and crime do not thrive long; where it is moral, it teaches a higher law, it awakens the conscience and makes it the governing power.

But not only does ignorance steal and murder, it votes, and it is with this phase of the question that the State has the greatest concern. Washington in his Farewell Address says: "In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion shall be enlightened;" and William Penn asserts, that if we would preserve the good Constitution left us by our fathers, we must have "men of wisdom and virtue, qualities that, because they descend not with worldly inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth." We can support our paupers, and imprison our criminals, but against our ignorant voters we have no defence. Either they exercise the rights of citizenship unwisely themselves, or they become the tools of politicians who work for selfish ends rather than for the public good. It becomes, then, a question of the gravest import how to bring the illiterate classes into the public schools.

Two plans (with some modifications) have been advanced,

the voluntary system with the employment of truant officers, and such an improvement in the schools as shall strongly commend them to the public, and the compulsory system. Both have the test of experience to speak for them. The former is used in Holland, and with such success that education is almost universal. In Sweden, where it also prevails, only 15,841 children of the 628,623 of legal school age were absentees without good excuse. This is exclusive of Stockholm. In that city special efforts have been made to induce parents to send their children to school, and the result is that only 1.2 per cent. of the non-attendants are without sufficient reason for not being in school. The *Westminster Review* says, that enforced education is unnecessary in Scotland, because parents of every class are so convinced of the advantages of education that they voluntarily make every effort to send their children to school. These facts clearly show that under certain circumstances the system of voluntary education can be successfully employed. Of these conditions a homogeneous population is the most important. A system, which depends for its success upon moral suasion alone, can only exist in a country where public opinion can make itself strongly felt. This is the case in the three countries we have cited, but it is not so with us. Our nation is composed of representatives of every other nation, and often those who come to us by no means equal the average excellence of their countrymen. Sometimes, as in the case of the Italians, or Chinese, they form communities entirely distinct, and are as free from the influence of public opinion here, as if they had remained in their native countries. They are separated from Americans by their customs, and it is no unusual thing to find persons who have lived here for many years unable to understand English. So were everyone now in the country educated, and the voluntary system established with the idea of keeping education universal, it would fail with the first ship-load of Italians or Chinese which landed upon our shores.

The compulsory system has also been employed with success, and notably in Prussia. Her schools have lately been so thoroughly discussed that it is unnecessary to call attention to their distinctive characteristics. They aim to

reach all classes, and the high state of culture prevailing among Prussians is a proof of the good they have accomplished. Experience, then, shows that both the systems we have noticed can be successfully employed. The question is which will best meet our needs.

Our need, as we take it, is something approximating, at least, universal education. Of the ability of the voluntary system to secure this we have had some experience in New York City. Our schools are certainly good enough to commend them to the public, and yet there are several thousand unoccupied places, while 30,000 children are growing up in ignorance. These are beyond the reach of moral suasion; they do not wish to go to school and will not do so unless compelled to. It has been much debated if we have a right to compel them, and if we have, whether it is advisable to put this additional power in the hands of government. But are not the evils inflicted upon us by ignorance greater than those which would result from giving the government this power? Or to look at it in another, and a truer, light. Education is something which every child has a right to demand, it is his preparation for work, and if parents do not voluntarily grant it, the government should interpose to protect the child. A man who sends his child into the world without any education by which he may gain his living, commits a wrong, just as truly as if he wantonly maimed him and unfitted him for work.

We do not think that with us education can, for many years at least, become universal. There will be a large number of adult illiterates whom it will be impossible to reach. The South is too impoverished to educate her negro population. There must be a large class of illiterates. Then among children here, there are many obstacles. If we place them in school we deprive them of the opportunity to work, and must support them, or assist the families which they have helped to sustain. This would necessitate placing children in factories, to work part of the time, or the erection of asylums in which they might live. The former has been done in Massachusetts, and we believe with success. It is not, however, the children who work that we want to reach, so much as those who roam about doing nothing,

learning in the street and in saloons, the wickedness which they will practice in after years. When they grow up they retaliate upon society the wrong inflicted upon them when they were young. Our school system has grown up with us and is undoubtedly the best for us so far as it goes, but it seems that the time has come for a further development, to meet the new position in which we find ourselves.

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

NORTH POLE.—The romance of the *Polaris* expedition has continued to the end. Capt. Buddington and his associates reached Scotland in safety on board a whaler, and at this writing await examination in Washington. The search for them on the part of the *Tigress* and the *Juniata*, resulted in the discovery by the former vessel of the Buddington winter camp on the mainland of Greenland (Prudhoe Land) near Cape Olsen, and opposite Littleton Island, off which, and not off Northumberland Island, as reported by Tyson and Meyer, the break-up occurred. Commander Greer gives the position of the camp from the chart as $78^{\circ} 23' N.$, $73^{\circ} 46' W.$ The *Polaris* had sunk only a few weeks before the arrival of the *Tigress*. She had previously been dismantled to construct the camp, which was made quite comfortable, and afterwards for the building of two whale boats, to which the party committed themselves towards the end of June, and pushed boldly southward. They encountered few perils and no great hardships; reached Cape York on the 21st of June, and two days later were picked up by the whaler *Ravenscraig*, of Dundee. All but three were brought to that port by another whaler, the *Arctic*, Sept. 19. The full story of their experiences is not yet told, and it is only necessary to say here that the charge of inhuman desertion of the Tyson party appears to have no foundation. The *Tigress* saved what papers, etc., had been left in camp, including the mutilated log-book.

SOUTH AMERICA.—A consummation devoutly to be wished is the building of a Pacific Railway through the Argentine Confederation, connecting Buenos Ayres and Valparaiso. The total distance was ascertained last year to be 1103 English miles, of which 319 have been already constructed. A practicable route across the Andes was found in the Planchon Pass, 8,225 feet high. Doubtless in this connection of two oceans the Italians will play as useful a part as in the Suez Canal and the Mont Cenis tunnel. Their immigration continues at the rate of 20 to 25,000 yearly, and they find the climate, mode of life, manners, religion, etc., quite to their taste. They settle chiefly, however, in the cities, and do not attach themselves to the country by acquiring real property. It is estimated that at least a third of the 140 or 150,000 immigrants since 1862 have returned home. While they remain they form a very valuable part of the population. In 1869 they numbered 71,442 in a total population of 1,877,490, far surpassing every other foreign nationality. Thus there were but 34,080 Spaniards, 32,383 French, 10,709 English, 5,860 Swiss, 4,997 Germans, 1,966 Portuguese, 834 Austrians, etc.

—Another Argentine railway in active process of completion starts from Rosario on the Paraná River, and already extends 250 miles to Córdoba, having for its objective point Jujuy, 585 miles further north (nearly on the Tropic of Capricorn) and about 100 miles from the Bolivian frontier. Col. Church's railroad around the rapids of the Madeira appears to have met with serious financial difficulties, from which it is to be hoped it may emerge. In a paper in the *Fortnightly Review* of three years ago he thus depicts the isolation from which Bolivia suffers for want of the natural outlet via the Madeira and Amazon. The rapid completion of the Peruvian trans-Andes railway, from Port Islay to Puno on Lake Titicaca, will soon change all this:

"A ton of goods leaves Europe for Cochabamba, the trade centre of Bolivia; it makes the stormy transit of Cape Horn, reaches the rocky coast of Peru, is landed in the surf, cut into small parcels for mule-back freighting, toils up the Andes to an elevation of 15,800 feet, (the highest peak of Mount Blanc is 15,700), which is the elevation of the pass of Tacora, descends to the Titicaca basin, crosses the

inland ridge of the Cordillera, and finally reaches its destination about five months after it has left Europe. The cost of this freighting is from £40 to £45 sterling per ton; but there is another charge to be added to this, for, in the meantime, it has paid a large profit to the merchants of Arica and Tacna, in Peru, who have built around them flourishing cities as a result, not to mention the colossal fortunes that have blessed the European houses which have quietly enjoyed the monopoly."

—The rapids of the Madeira are, as described by Col. Church, rocky obstructions found at intervals in the river, and are eighteen in number. They have a total fall of 228.41 feet, with a length of broken water of 64,505 feet. The total fall in the navigable stretches between them is 43.95 feet. This makes a total from the upper rapid of Guajará-Merim to the lower, called San Antonio, of 272.36 feet. The total length of river between these two points is 229.38 miles, of which 217 miles are of clear channel, perfectly navigable, with a depth of water from 10 to 120 feet in the dry season. The proposed railway to avoid the rapids will be only about 168 miles long, as it will cut off the curves of the rivers. Bolivian labor can be procured in abundance for this work, and "wherever it has been employed in Peru, or in the Brazilian lower Amazon, it has been found much superior to any other, unless taken from abroad." Indeed Col. Church is almost enthusiastic in his opinion of the Bolivian character:

"It is the Inca race, with its Spanish mixture, that now occupies this interesting country. The Quichua branch is the more numerous, and envelops the transplanted fraction of the Aymarás, which has its centre at La Paz, the northern capital of the country. The Quichua is, perhaps, the more docile and industrious. He is a great lover of agricultural pursuits, and clings to a little spot of ground with greater love for it than even the Anglo-Saxon. I have seen him at the snow-line of 15,000 feet, living in a miserable hut and barely finding the means to prolong his shivering existence. A half-mile down the mountain were smiling valleys to welcome him, but he preferred his home. He is eminently Pantheistic in his religion. Despite the long rule of the Spaniard and the efforts of the Catholic clergy, both Quichua and Aymará continue their Pantheistic ceremonies, and, in the main, attend mass for amusement. They have many peculiarities of intellectual power, and their blood, intermingled with that of the Spaniard, is producing a combination which is destined to have a

marked effect upon the future of South America. I have seen many of the Indian races of the Western Continent, from the head-waters of the Mississippi down through Mexico and South America to the Straits of Magellan, but none among them strike me as of such sturdy growth and talent as the Bolivian Quichuas and Aymarás. They have immense endurance, muscle, and courage. They would laugh at the European armies, which boast of a march of twenty-five miles in a day. Their infantry have often marched sixty miles for days in succession."

These people are very fertile. In 1826, the year following Bolivia's independence, she had a population of 997,427; in 1859 she had 1,950,000; and in 1869, the census of December indicated a total of about 2,750,000.

ASIA.—The *Japan Gazette*, in praising an order of the Daijo Kuan, which prohibits the cutting down of trees within the precincts of either Buddhist or Shinto shrines without express permission, goes on to say :

"We doubt whether there is a country in the world, even in tropical regions, that produces such remarkable variety, not only of useful and ornamental timber, but of really noble and beautiful trees. Some foreigners who consider their knowledge of Japan exhaustive after a few days spent in Tokei or the treaty ports, conclude that there are no very large trees in this country. It is from such persons that others abroad have formed the curious idea that the timber of Japan is usually of a stunted size, and that such articles as masts of ships, etc., cannot be obtained in Japan. If such impressions are not corrected by a careful examination of the groves of Uyenô and Shiba, those skeptical of Japan's abilities should visit the Hakone mountains, the mountains of Kadzusa, the table lands of Shinano and the numerous other timber tracts throughout the country. It may also be noticed that in Japanese theatres, where there are no supporting columns, the rafters are solid tree trunks of enormous length. The timber used in the castle gates of Tokei give us some idea of what the height of the trees must have been, by their girth."

—The connection of Japan by telegraph with the rest of the world lacks for Americans only one thing—a Yankee at the Japanese end of the wire, and an agent of the Associated Press at his elbow. This can not be had so long as foreign nations control the telegraph, and a message must pass through the hands of half-a-dozen operators speaking as many different languages. A Pacific cable is evidently among the necessities of the news-loving, commercial inhab-

itants of this country. The U. S. steamer *Tuscarora*, Commander George E. Belknap, is now exploring the Pacific bottom with a view to finding a favorable route for such a cable. The survey began in the vicinity of Puget Sound, and the harbor of Victoria, Vancouver's Island, was selected as the most favorable spot at which to land the cable. From that place the *Tuscarora* proceeded to the Aleutian Islands, and it is expected she will reach the island of Atka. It is not probable that much progress will be made in the survey this season, as the weather will soon be unfavorable for it. In that case the vessel will be employed until spring in getting the continental outline between San Francisco and the end of the California peninsula, sounding off and on shore until she ascertains the true ocean-bed. An experience will thus be obtained which will enable her to execute her orders with more certainty.

—The Oriental Topographical corps of New York, during their recent exploration in Palestine, inaugurated a system of forest and fruit tree planting, which promises to result in the setting out of several hundred thousand trees annually. George May Powell, of the expedition, in order to prove that pedestrian tours are practicable in that climate, made a journey from Jerusalem, via Nazareth and Mount Carmel, to Mount Lebanon on foot, in midsummer, and accomplished it without fatigue in twenty-four hours, which is less than the usual horseback time. Mr. Powell returns to the East about Christmas time, in company with an expedition at the head of which will be Prof. James Strong, of Drew Theological Seminary, chief of the Oriental Topographical corps.

OCEANICA.—The intrepid Dr. N. von Miklucho-Maclay, whose death in New Guinea had been reported, and for whom the Russian Government despatched the *Isumrud*, proved to be alive if not well, and greeted his countrymen on their arrival in Astrolabe Bay. This part of the coast appears to be especially dangerous on account of fevers, from which not only had the explorer been suffering (and nigh fatally), but which attacked violently the crew of the *Isumrud*, though the ship remained but five days in the bay,

prostrating 80 out of 200. This was the second vessel only that the Papuans had ever seen, the first being the *Viti-az*, which brought out Dr. Maclay two and a half years previously (1870). The fright occasioned by this floating, smoking monster drove the inhabitants to the mountains, and they could with difficulty be inspired with confidence. Dr. Maclay's position among them had been precarious enough during the five months preceding March of this year. Let alone the fever, and the death of one of his two servants, he had constantly to be on his guard against being murdered. He so conducted himself, however, as to make the savages firmly believe that he was a kind of god. He means to return to the island soon, but to another less malarious part of the coast. An Italian naturalist, D'Albertis, has also been forced to quit New Guinea on account of the fevers, and return to Europe, bearing with him a large collection of zoölogical specimens. His companion, Odoardo Beccari, remains, so that science is not to be without its witness.

—An interesting book has been published in German by F. Jagor, narrating his journeys in the Philippine Islands in the years 1859–1860. The account he gives of the state of society in Manila and its suburbs is anything but inviting. "Life in the city proper can scarcely be agreeable: pride, envy, place-hunting, caste-hatred, are the order of the day. The Spaniards deem themselves superior to their Creoles, who, in their turn, reproach them with coming to the colony only to eat their fill. The same hatred and the same grudge exist between the whites and the half-castes." It appears that cock-fighting is the great pastime of the population. In his twentieth chapter he describes some remarkable antiquities in the narrow San Francisco strait, which separates Samar and Leyte, a locality whose picturesqueness the author extols, questioning much "whether the ocean anywhere laves a spot of such rich and peculiar beauty."

"The remains referred to," says *Nature*, "are certain ancient scarophagi found in cavities in a series of marble-like rocks situated near the eastern entrance to the straits, and in a few other remarkable localities. These rocks rise out at sea to a height of a hundred

feet. Their summits are dome-shaped, and their bases are much worn by the action of the sea. In these cavities the ancient Pintados, a race of tattooed Indians, and some other natives of the Archipelago, deposited the remains of their wives and elders as before adverted to. They placed them in carefully closed coffins along with the objects which in life they deemed most precious. Slaves were sacrificed at their burial, in order that they might not be without attendants in the next world. These spots were regarded with superstitious awe by the natives, who believed them to be haunted. A young Spanish clergyman led an expedition to some of the caves, and, after some religious ceremonies, wrecked the coffins, and turned their contents into the sea. The superstition still lingers about the rocks, although much weakened. The author had some difficulty in finding men resolute enough to accompany him on an expedition having a somewhat different object in view, that of bringing away some of the relics. He succeeded, however, and the trophies were deposited by him in the Zoölogical Museum of Berlin University."

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Cartography.—Kiepert's comparative maps of African geography, together with the accompanying letter-press, have been published separately as the first of a series on the progress of African discovery ("Beiträge zur Entdeckungsgeschichte Africa's"), and may be had of L. W. Schmidt, 24 Barclay street, New York. (See the October Notes.) Part II. will assign to each nation the credit for the share it has had in opening up Ethiopia. No. VIII. of Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for this year (July 29) contains an admirable map of English and American explorations in Baffin's Bay and Smith's Sound, including the results of the unfortunate *Polaris* expedition. The only change needed is in locating the spot at which the vessel broke away from her moorings and separated those on board from those on the ice. Part 15 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas has a map of the river and mountain systems of Germany, and two of Eastern Europe.

Photography.—November is not exactly the month one would choose for visiting Newport, in spite of what Mr. Higginson and Mr. Curtis before him have had to say of the winter delights of the place. But it is as good a time as any in which to study Newport through the stereoscope, reviewing the summer work there of the Messrs. Anthony's photographer. His series was not yet completed when we looked it over, and we may recur to it hereafter. For the

present we select the following views. Let us begin by advising any one who wants a perfect chart of Newport to send fifty cents to the office of the Coast Survey in Washington. It is on a scale of six inches to a mile, and is as minute and accurate as is all the work of that best department of our Government. It does not show the southern half of the Point; but all the city proper, the three principal beaches, the cliffs, and much more will be found delineated, with lines marking the comparative altitude of the surface.

Walking straight up from Long Wharf, at which the steamboat has landed him, the stranger on crossing Thames street finds himself confronted by the *State House*. The two views, 8347 and 8348, not only exhibit well this solid and honest old pile, and its elm-shaded park, but give us glimpses of side streets lined with houses which may easily be a hundred years old, and which are quite characteristic of this part of the town. The trees in these pictures offer fine studies of trunk forms. Continuing on till we strike Touro street, the very name reminds us of the days of Newport's greatest prosperity, for it commemorates one of those families of Jewish merchants whose dispersion (to Leicester, Boston, and elsewhere) was accounted one of the greatest losses caused by the British occupation of 1776-79. Here we observe the unpretentious *Jewish Synagogue*, No. 8356, and the gateway to the *Jewish Cemetery*, No. 8357. On the same great thoroughfare stands next in order the *Redwood Library*, No. 8355, also despoiled by the British. It is a cool resort in summer, and well adorned with statuary and paintings. In the view before us the shadow cast by the Doric portico seems to speak of July heat without, and of comfort within. Nearly opposite is Ward's simple and reposeful statue of *Commodore Perry*, shown from two points in Nos. 8360, 8361. This is not the hero of Lake Erie, but his brother Matthew Galbraith, whose part in opening Japan to Western civilization is duly celebrated in bronze on the circular base—a more than commonly successful design, by the way. Close by, the *Old Mill*, covered with ivy, deserves the enclosure which it has received from a perhaps too reverent municipality. Its pre-historic antiquity does not suggest itself to any one who observes the holes which once held the floor-beams of the second story, and, on the same level, a fire-place, of which the flue is built up within the wall. Norse or Anglo-American, it has passed into legend and poetry, and is, as we have said, worthy to be kept from harm. *Bailey's Beach* (not represented in the Coast Survey map) furnishes three views, Nos. 8312, 8314, and 8315—all showing some of the modern villas which have been built about it, and the rocky character of the shore.

Obituary.—On July 12th, died, in London, in his seventy-sixth year, Joseph Barclay Pentland, "the highly informed traveler," to use the words of Humboldt, "who, in his memorable expedition to Peru, 1827, first measured the mountains Illimani and Sorata, 21,290 feet,

and demonstrated that they were the highest peaks in America" ('Cosmos,' vol. i.). He was born in Ireland in 1797, and was early left an orphan. He was educated first at the school of Armagh and afterwards at the University of Paris, where he gained the approbation and friendship of Cuvier by the knowledge he displayed of comparative anatomy and other branches of science. His appointment, in 1827, by the British Government, as Secretary to the Consulate in Peru, gave him the opportunity for his exploration of the Andes above alluded to; he continued and completed his researches in 1836-39, when he was sent by Lord Palmerston as Consul-General to the Republic of Bolivia (La Paz). On this occasion he accomplished a complete survey of the vast mountain lake of Titicaca,—having an area of 2,222 square miles,—and his laboriously constructed map was engraved and published by the Admiralty in 1847. Since 1845 he had made Rome his winter residence, and was thoroughly acquainted with the topography and antiquities of that city, so that for many years he was editor of Murray's Handbooks for Rome and Italy. He aided Mr. Fergusson with his sketches of the antiquities of Cusco, and Mrs. Somerville with information on the geology of South America for her Physical Geography.

—A young Italian, Count Ferdinando dal Verone, only 27 years of age, died of fever at Zanzibar in the latter part of July. He was a native of Milan, and graduated as an engineer from the Paris *Ecole Centrale* at twenty-one. Three years were spent among the mines of Sardinia, whence he entered the employ of an English company working at Orenburg, Russia, as director. Here he remained two years, until drawn away from his proper work by reading of the doings of Stanley and Livingstone in Central Africa. It became his ambition to rival their performances, and he was on the eve of starting into the interior of the Continent when he fell a victim to the old enemy of African explorers.

—Were there any chain of lofty mountains stretching across China, it would have a regularity unknown in the present climate. Year after year, rain would be deposited on the southern slopes, while to the north there would be uncultivated deserts. Such is the case in India, and in a more marked degree in Persia. In China no large mass of mountains rises high enough to seriously affect the rainfall; and, in consequence, the limit to which the monsoon extends is defined by other circumstances. The result is an irregularity in the monsoon unknown in other countries, but this very irregularity generally has the curious result that, if certain districts suffer by an irregularity in the rainfall, others are sure to profit to an unwonted extent. On the whole, few countries are blessed with a climate better suited to agriculture.

CO-EDUCATION.

THE question of admitting women to Harvard has been discussed for some time. A daughter of Mrs. Livermore was rejected on account of her sex, and, at the Social Science Association, held at Boston shortly after, Mrs. Julia Ward Howe seized the opportunity to inform President Eliot that, in her opinion, he was possessed by the very "Satan of human society." The advocates of co-education have used quite enough of such argument, and it is therefore quite a pleasure to find a calm, sensible, report on the subject.

A committee of the Board of Overseers of the University was appointed to report upon co-education. Dr. James Freeman Clarke, who was chairman of the committee, prepared a report, the conclusions of which his colleagues were not prepared to subscribe to. Inasmuch as his official term in the Board of Overseers was on the point of expiring, and he was therefore debarred from taking any further steps in the matter, the other members of the committee readily agreed that his views should be published. He starts out with three propositions. 1. The friends of Harvard have daughters as well as sons. 2. They wish their daughters to have as good an education as possible. 3. They cannot obtain as good an education anywhere else as in Harvard University. The two former propositions are evident enough without discussion, upon the third opinions divide.

Dr. Clarke argues that Harvard has buildings, endowments, libraries, and all the necessary educational appliances, while her professors are men of great attainments and large experience. Since the elective system has been adopted, a certain number of teachers must be employed, and it makes no difference whether a class consists of two or twenty. Unless, then, good arguments can be adduced against the admission of girls to boys colleges, why should not these means of education be made to accomplish double the good which they do now? It is no argument against co-education that the other system has prevailed hitherto.

But the plan is not so new as we are apt to think, for it has been tried for a long time in the high and normal schools. Mr. David B. Hagar, now at the head of the Salem Normal School, says: "There are not many propositions to make in regard to education, concerning which I could speak very positively. But of one thing I am sure, that young men and young women study better, behave better, and are in every way benefited, by being together in the high schools." President White, of Cornell University, in a "Report to the Trustees of Cornell University," gives the same testimony. He says: "During many years, indeed during the greater part of the century, the education together of young men and young women of marriageable age, and coming from distant homes, has been going on all about us, in the academies and high schools of the State of New York and neighboring States, and not only have no evil results followed worthy to be taken into the account, but the system has worked so well, that it has come to be regarded as natural and normal.

"While this practical experiment has thus been going on for many years, under almost perfect freedom as regards boarding, lodging and social intercourse, with no well-watched quadrangles, no system of proctors to restrain the young men, or of matrons to guard the young women, the disputants on this question, on either side, appear to have been straining their eyes in looking deep down into the human consciousness or afar off into the universe at large, to solve a problem which their fathers and mothers and sons and daughters had done so much already to work out, nay, in whose solution they themselves had taken part.

"Among the letters giving results obtained in this field of experience, none certainly is entitled to greater weight than that of the Honorable Samuel B. Woolworth, for thirty-two years the successful Principal of some of the best academies in the State, and of one which, under his management, ranked in many respects the first. It should be added that this direct personal experience of Dr. Woolworth is supplemented by an experience of many years as Secretary of the Board of Regents of the State of New York—a position bringing him into most intimate relations with

every academy and high school in the State. His letter is as follows :

“All my experience in teaching has been in institutions to which persons of both sexes have been admitted—at Onondaga Academy six years—at Cortland Academy twenty-two years—at the State Normal School four years.

“I answer your questions *seriatim* :

“1. The co-education of the sexes has been favorable to good order and discipline.

“2. A mutual stimulating influence has been exerted on scholarship.

“3. There have been no scandals—at least not more than may exist between the members of a school limited to one sex, and the outside world.

“4. To most of the academies, and to all of the normal and union schools of the State, both sexes are admitted.”

Principal Armstrong, of the Normal School at Fredonia, N. Y., says :

“My observation shows that the morals of students of either sex deteriorate, apparently, in proportion to the rigor of the separation of the sexes. The same is true of their delicacy of feeling, their sense of honor, and their love of truth.

“In all mixed seminaries and academies where social intercourse of the sexes was either forbidden or largely restrained, the ladies lost in prudence, delicacy, and truthfulness, even faster than the gentlemen.

“For many years my views of school government have been much more liberal than the common practice would justify. In this Normal School I allow, and *even encourage*, all the freedom of intercourse between the sexes, which would be allowed in a well-regulated family. This has been tested for two years. The results are good in the recitation-room, where they mingle as they choose on the seats ; in the halls, where they communicate freely as at home ; in the boarding-places, where they have only the same restrictions. They visit, walk, and ride out together, out of recitation hours, whenever and wherever they please. The results are, they study better, are more polite, *visit far less*,

walk and ride together far less, than when restrained, and never under imprudent or objectionable circumstances.

"We have the most orderly, studious, and happy school I ever was in.

"In Genesee College the results were good, though the restrictions were too many to allow the best results.

"All my experience and observations have confirmed my earlier faith in the sense and virtues of the youth of the land, who attend our schools, of the necessity of the two sexes exerting reciprocally their influence upon their development, in order to obtain the best results, and of the fact that nine-tenths of all the irregularity and disorder in our colleges arises from the establishment of an arbitrary and unnatural state of society among the students."

More to the purpose, however, is the testimony from Michigan University. In 1870 the Regents voted to admit women, and in the academic year of 1870-71, there were about thirty-five lady students; eighteen in the Medical class, two in the Law-school, three in the Pharmacy class, and the remaining twelve in the Literary and Scientific departments. No scandals have come up, and the thing is now so settled that no one notices it. Dr. Clarke quotes the experience of many other institutions, but as their testimony coincides with that given above, it is not necessary to reproduce it. The objection made by some that matrimonial engagements would often be formed by students in a "mixed" college, is deserving of little consideration. Young men and young women who come together for study, learn to know each other much better than those who meet only in society, and if they did sometimes marry "out of their sphere," the real evil would probably be little.

Dr. Clarke says in conclusion :

"I think that this method is particularly applicable to Harvard University, because the system of elective study is already so largely adopted therein. In colleges where one course of study is the rule for all, that would necessarily be adapted to the male students, and might not be so suitable for women. But in Harvard they would have such large liberty of choice, that they might easily select a course suitable to them.

"Mr. White also informs me that in his opinion it would be easier to introduce this plan into colleges like Harvard and Yale, which are situated in large towns, where board could be found in private families, than in small places, where it would be necessary to erect boarding-houses for the young women, and then to watch them. In Cambridge they could take care of themselves.

"Whether the proper time has come for introducing this change at Cambridge I do not undertake to say; but I believe the system is good in itself—that it is in accordance with the ideas of modern society—that in practice it has worked very well, wherever tried; and that the sooner it can be introduced at Cambridge the better it will be for our excellent University."

WE borrow from the *Vossische Zeitung* the following interesting statistics with regard to the condition of education in the German Empire: There are throughout Germany 60,000 national schools, with six millions of pupils. About 150 scholars are reckoned to every 1,000 inhabitants. A higher proportion than this is to be found in Brunswick, Oldenburg, Saxony and Thuringia, and a lower one in Mecklenburg and Bavaria. There are 330 gymnasia in the German Empire, 214 pro-gymnasia, 14 "real" gymnasia and 483 "real" and higher burghal schools. The total sum of scholars at these "middle" schools amounts to 177,379. Of German universities there are no less than 20, with 1,624 teachers (Professors "ordinary" and extraordinary, *privat docenten*) and 15,557 students. Of polytechnical schools there are 10 (only 2 in Prussia), with 360 tutors and 5,428 scholars. A Prussian officer has lately endeavored to show, in a curious pamphlet, that the much-vaunted education of Prussian soldiers is little better than a myth. According to the experience of that gentleman, out of 40 recruits only 5 or 6 could read and write well; from 15 to 19 were "decent," while a dozen were very imperfectly educated.

RECENT GIFTS TO COLLEGES.

THE long list of those who merely in the past twenty-five years have manifested what we may almost call the American sense of the responsibility of riches—the Tappans, Astors, Peabodys, Coopers, Thayers, Sheffields, Vassars, Packers, Cornells, Stevensons, Simmonses, and Lenoxes (to select a few of the more prominent)—has since the opening of the year been signally increased. The generous givers thus named are perhaps even outranked in munificence by Mr. John Hopkins, of Baltimore, whose public endowments, present and prospective, will amount to between four and five million of dollars. A university with scholarships for the poor he has already taken steps to organize by the appointment of trustees, by the gift of his Clifton estate of four hundred acres, and by setting apart in his will for this object his entire interest in the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Still more recently he conveyed to other trustees two million dollars, with which to erect and maintain a hospital in the city of Baltimore for the indigent sick of the city and its environs “without regard to sex, age, or color;” a training-school for nurses in connection with it—these two institutions to form a part of the medical school of the future university; and in the country an orphans’ home with accommodation for three or four hundred colored children, and due provision for their maintenance and education. These deeds speak for themselves, but it should be added that Mr. Hopkins’s instructions are, like his intentions, of the most liberal character, and that he and every one of his trustees are Southern men by birth and life-long residence. Commodore Vanderbilt, too, apparently not unwilling to be Drew’s rival in dispensing as in making money, has been giving liberally—more liberally perhaps than wisely—to sectarian seminaries in Tennessee and on Staten Island, parting it is said with a million of dollars. The University of California, under President Gilman’s new régime, is also stimulating the generosity of the Pacific coast and receiving significant donations of land and money for professorships, books, collections, etc. And finally, as taking

effect during the present year, we may allude to the late Edwin Forrest's foundation of a home for decayed actors in Philadelphia, in a park of sixty acres.—*Nation*.

TO FATHERS AND MOTHERS.

IT is an interesting fact that, simultaneously with the life of our country, there grew into life, in Europe, a man who seemed born on purpose to give to the world a theory of education, and to elaborate an art of it, exactly in the spirit of our Constitution: the first ever made, unless it were the Hebrew, to prevent the few from dominating the many, and to inspire all the people freely to enter upon the truly human work of dominating outside nature in the spirit of fraternal help.

Freidrich Froebel was born in 1782, the year after our revolutionary war was crowned by victory; and the year before our independence was duly acknowledged by Great Britain. He grew up with a painful childish experience of his own, though by no means a very uncommon one, while the great world around him was rushing into the vortex of the French Revolution; and lived through the Revival of Education in Europe, in the early part of this century, which kindled him into an Educational Reformer. But the memoirs we have of him, from the pens of himself and his friends, show that he owed less even to Fichte, Pestalozzi, Diesterweg, and the other eminent educators, who have illustrated the nineteenth century, than to his own wonderful sensibility and genius.

The art of kindergartening (child-culture) was his invention. He meant by it, taking children from the mother's arms in the twilight of their intellectual consciousness, and, in the spirit of the wise mother's method, cultivating them as living organisms, not drilling them as stones, or moulding them as clay; but first teaching them to trust, to hope, and to love, by presenting to these natural instincts of their hearts their proper objects in the living persons of their parents, brothers, sisters, and other genial companions, with whom

they may exchange all the sweet courtesies of life in their childish plays; at the same time that their understandings are very gradually developed to know the nature and life to which they are born heirs. This last is done by giving them opportunity to act upon nature immediately around them; to produce effects within the compass of their childish fancy and affection, exercising their powers of sense, locomotion, and manipulation upon playthings, given in such order, and so easy to use, that the knocking down and tearing up to which all children are prompted, by the instinct of self-activity, in order to prove themselves powers, shall be replaced with little productions of their own, which shall react on themselves to produce attention and examination, and knowledge of order and law, as well as real pleasure, (which is the best moral atmosphere for children; and which they, unconsciously, vainly seek for in the unguided, disorderly play of ignorance.)

The kindergarten era stretches for three or four years between the nursery and the primary school time: admitting more formal discipline than the nursery, but less than is indispensable for the primary schools, for instruction in reading and elementary science. And it requires a peculiar class of teachers, who unite the tenderness of the mother with a philosophical insight into the nature of childhood, in that pre-intellectual era when irresponsibility is just beginning to yield to the growing moral sense. Its teachers must have made themselves adepts in Froebel's method of sharpening the five senses, and training the limbs, especially the hands, to artistic processes, with genial conversations that lead the children to think, invent, and especially to speak and understand their mother-tongue with precision and intelligence.

To obtain such a class of teachers, it is necessary for parents first to make themselves acquainted with Froebel's art and science; and secondly to support with their money and personal sympathy kindergartens with properly trained teachers.

To promote these objects, therefore, the Kindergarten Association of Boston proposes that parents all over the country shall form, in their own neighborhoods, simple unions, to meet at least once a month, for the purpose of

reading and conversing with each other on the subject of kindergartening; being quite sure if they do so, that they will very soon be prompted to do all that is requisite to have kindergartens for their own and their neighbors' children at once, and to support the teacher whom they shall procure, with all the necessary means for her success.

Already one such union has been spontaneously formed in the town of Montclair, New Jersey, whose members meet once a fortnight to read and converse. They began, as any other union can do, with procuring from the National Bureau of Education its Circular of Information on Kindergartens, for July, 1872, containing the Baroness Marenholtz Bulow's statement of what a true kindergarten is. The Commissioner, General Eaton, will send this pamphlet for the asking, without price.

The Montclair Union has already procured and supports a kindergartner who meets with the mothers to read kindergarten literature, and with whom they converse and sympathise. It has proved a complete success, and continues to be more and more interesting to the members. The grown daughters of the members also visit the kindergarten, and find it delightful to assist under the direction of the kindergartner, who thus is enabled to enlarge her numbers, while they are obtaining the highest touch of culture for future motherhood and general womanly influence in society.

We close by giving the hint of a Constitution.

Whereas, we deem it indispensable that all children, between the ages of three and seven, be prepared, by kindergartening, for the schools of instruction provided for them by the State, in order that the latter may attain their objects; and, whereas, kindergartening must be based upon the science of child-nature, which is not intuitive; the undersigned parents and friends of children organize themselves into a social union, to meet at least as often as once a month, for the purpose of reading and conversing upon all subjects pertaining to Froebel's art and science, beginning with the Circular of Information published by the National Bureau for July, 1872.

The meeting shall be as informal as is consistent with order and comfort, the President of the union being chosen

to act as Chairman, and open the meetings with a statement of what is the subject of the reading or discussion of the day.

A Secretary may also be appointed whose duty it shall be to make some report of each meeting to the one following; and by and by to correspond with the Boston Kindergarten Association, which hopes, in the course of the summer, to start a monthly periodical, to be edited by Miss E. P. Peabody, the first number of which will be sent to any union that will make known its existence to the Association.

This monthly will afford themes for the conversations of the unions, and contain, among other things, Miss Peabody's lectures of the past winter. The continuation of the publication, however, will depend upon the success of the subscription for it.

This letter is written by the order of the Boston Kindergarten Association, given at their meeting of March 22, 1873.—*Elizabeth P. Peabody.*



CREAM OF THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLIES.

A TIMELY article on "Literature for Children" will be found in *Home and School*. So many books with morals, and with scientific talk thinly disguised, have lately been published, that there is danger of their crowding out the standard children's books, such as Robinson Crusoe, and the Arabian Nights. The children who read these "books with a purpose" may have correct opinions, adopted from other people, about force, or electricity, but at their time of life originality is of more importance than correctness. We do not want moralizing or scientific children, but childish children. Fairy tales rivet the attention and strengthen the realizing power by which the mind retains whatever is read, and these, and books like *The Young Marooners*, and *Robinson Crusoe*, are the best preparation for future serious study. *Finishing her Education*, *A Dominic's Talk with his Pupils*, and *Boys*, are well worth reading. The charade, *Home and School*, is a disconnected

play, containing stale newspaper jokes, the purpose apparently being to advertise the journal in which it appears.

The fault of spending too much time in preparing for examinations, and the tricks resorted to, to make a good show, are discussed in the *Kansas Educational Journal*. The desire to have the children recite well, is stronger than that of having them thoroughly instructed. The blame for this lies partly with parents, who think that there is some defect in the teaching if their prodigies do not astonish by the profundity of their learning in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and partly with the teacher, who sacrifices the sense of duty, to the desire for praise. This making a good show involves petty deceptions in the way of reciting old, well drilled, lessons, when visitors come, and not infrequently direct lying, by both teacher and pupil. The effect upon children is most injurious, for it teaches them to substitute sham for reality, and blunts their moral sense. After all, an honest child blundering through a recitation is much better than a cheat who recites glibly, if parents could only be made to think so. There are other "errors" spoken of which we have not space to notice. The *Journal* contains some good selected articles, but little original worthy of notice.

The Massachusetts Teacher has a word to say about translation as a means of mental growth, and deprecates the literalness and inelegance generally heard in the school-room. When pupils have attained some little knowledge of a language, they should be encouraged to find out the exact ideas intended to be expressed, and then render them into idiomatic English. This is more useful than the literal translation of each word. The blame of the present system rests with the teacher, and is the result of a conscientious desire to be sure that the pupil understands the meaning of the words, and that he has not depended upon a "pony" in preparing his recitation. What might be lost in accuracy by a less literal rendering, would be more than made up by the enlargement of ideas, and an increased power in using language. But accuracy need not be sacrificed, for a few questions would readily determine whether the pupil were able to give exact equivalents for foreign words. "French in

High Schools," also receives attention. The writer argues, and we think justly, that the vast majority never need to speak French, and that the time spent in trying to accomplish that might better be employed in gaining acquaintance with French literature. "Reminiscences of Boston Schools Forty-five years ago," is an interesting paper, which we are glad to see will be continued.

A communication from "Meadville" in the July number of the *Pennsylvania School Journal* has called forth a "Repliation" from S. J. S. It is not strictly speaking a reply, for the original article was intended to prove that religious instruction is not neglected in the public schools. S. J. S. assumes the truth of this statement, and argues that such instruction is a wrong to those with whose convictions it does not agree. The arguments advanced are the old ones so often used in the discussion of the question of Bible reading in the public schools. Romanists and Jews are as earnest in their beliefs as are Protestants, and it does not seem just that when they pay so large a share of the school-tax, they should not have the right to keep their children from being taught what they honestly conceive to be error. S. J. S. does not wish to do away with instruction in religion, but thinks it should be confided to the church and Sunday-school. The arguments advanced are worthy of consideration. The right is on the side of the Protestants, where the right is, is an open question. "Aesthetic Culture," "Normal Development," and "Bible Reading," are among the other subjects discussed in the *Journal*.

THE marked success of the English school ships for the young Arabs of the streets causes the *Boston Journal* to regret the failure of the experiment made by Massachusetts. That paper states that it has always thought that the failure was attributable to bad management rather than inherent obstacles in the general idea. The material for hardy seamen was at hand, but the skill to control, instruct, and mould was lacking.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

INDIANA.—The State Board of Education has determined upon readjusting and modifying to whatever extent may appear to be necessary the course of study in the public schools, so as to make it one continuous system, from the lowest primary grade up to and through the State University. From the primary grades to the high schools the system does not appear, in their opinion, to need adjusting. Not so, however, between the high school and the University, the relationship between them needing some modification to bring them in perfect working accord and harmony. One noticeable feature of the new system is to be found in a provision which makes a certificate from certain designated high schools, showing that the bearer has satisfactorily passed through their course, a sufficient showing of proper preparation, without further examination, to enter the University.

MASSACHUSETTS.—MONSON.—The State Primary School closed the first year of its independent existence Oct. 1st, with sixty more pupils than it had a year ago, the number now reaching 400. Last year there were 148 newcomers, but this year there are nearly 200. The increase in numbers results from the working of the visiting agency act, the courts sending vagrant children to school.

MICHIGAN.—DETROIT.—The schools are so crowded that the Superintendent has been obliged to open half-day schools. One division is taught in the morning and another in the afternoon. The success of these schools will help solve the problem as to the proper length of school hours.

LANSING.—The report of attendance at school is 92 per cent. of the average number belonging. During the year a special teacher of drawing has been employed, but hereafter drawing will be required to obtain an ordinary teacher's certificate.

NEW MEXICO.—The Secretary of the Territory writes that a substantial start has been made in educational matters. In every county the school machinery is ready, and

only waits legislative action to set it in motion. The native population is becoming alive to the necessity of education, and the Secretary predicts, that, in a few years, New Mexico will stand well up in the educational ranks. He is about to issue circulars asking for statistics, and other information, upon which to base intelligent action in establishing schools.

OHIO.—CINCINNATI.—The question of continuing instruction in German in the public schools is seriously discussed, the complaint against it being the expense it entails. The Board has virtually declared itself bankrupt. At its last meeting the state of affairs was fully reviewed, but the question was postponed for future decision. When it was taken up again the school year was about to commence, and it was deemed advisable to leave matters *in statu quo*.

TENNESSEE.—The working of the new school-law surpasses the most sanguine hopes of its friends. Its influence is felt in every county, and it is a most encouraging fact that the people heartily support the authorities in their efforts to improve the schools. At a Superintendents' meeting recently held in Knoxville, much enthusiasm was displayed and a resolution evinced to make the Tennessee schools equal to the best. The Superintendents are spoken of as men of clear ideas and much executive ability.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

FOR a long time the correct mode of pronouncing Latin has been under discussion, the English and Continental systems both having their partisans. The former certainly had the advantage in point of consistency, for it follows entirely our manner of pronouncing, while the latter, although pretending to give the sounds used by the Romans, formed a system which was neither flesh nor fish. Still the Continental system sounded more pleasant, perhaps because we were taught to use it, but we well remember how awkwardly it sounded to hear a new pupil, whom we thought brought up

in outer darkness, go through *amo* in the English style.— Especially were our sensibilities shocked when he came to *amavi*, which he pronounced, aye-mav-eye. We suspect, however, that his system was more logical than ours, for he did what he pretended to, and we, claiming to speak like “antique Romans,” did not. For many years Latin scholars have endeavored to introduce the real Roman pronunciation, since comparative philology has settled many doubtful points, and has enabled us to closely approximate our system to that of the Romans. These principles were enunciated by the Syllabus of Latin Pronunciation recently prepared by the Latin professors of Cambridge and Oxford, and their views have been accepted by some of the former Latin scholars of our country.

The adoption of this system is one of the features of a grammar lately published.¹ To change the present style of pronunciation will of course be a very slow process, because, with all respect to our Latin professors, it is hard to “teach an old dog new tricks.” Yet, if the leading colleges adopt the old Roman style, the smaller institutions will soon follow, and the movement will gradually work down to the schools. Another new departure in this grammar is the arrangement of its parts. The verb is the basis of the sentence; it is, in fact, what its very name indicates, *the* word. Logically it should be treated first. There is little gained, though nothing is lost, by this change. There are a few things which the pupil has to learn all at once, or at first. Until these are comprehended he is a mere machine learning facts, but afterwards he can see the reason of things and studies in a rational way. These first things are a general knowledge of the parts of speech. Inflection of the verb is arranged with reference to the character of the stem; the vowel stems of verbs are treated in regular succession as A, E and I verbs. U and consonant verbs are classed by themselves. Another departure from the usual method is found in the treatment of Syntax. Instead of learning rules first and then applying them in sentences, the pupil studies sentences, and thus discovers the rules. This plan is theoretically better than the

¹ A GRAMMAR OF THE LATIN LANGUAGE, by G. K. Bartholomew. Wilson, Hinkle & Co.; New-York and Cincinnati.

old one, but we doubt its practicability. Boys beginning Latin are not apt to evolve rules from observing sentences. The old system has, we think, the advantage in time, and is fully as accurate. In this matter much depends upon the teacher. These are the principal points in which this grammar differs from those which have preceded it. The author has taught Latin for a long time, and his book embodies the results of his experience. It is practical in a good degree, and we think it will prove useful.

MR. E. STEIGER has published a new German series based upon Ahn's system. It consists of a first and second book, which are also bound in one volume, a key containing exercises in reading and translating, and a small reading chart. Ahn's system has been so long before the public, that it is unnecessary to discuss it here. In this new series there is ambiguity in some of the explanations, as for instance on page 6 of the First German Book, where, in reference to the use of the long and short *s*, the author says: "The long *s* is used in the beginning and middle of words; the short *s* only at the end of a word, or part of a word." By "part of a word" is meant a component part of a compound word, but from the above quotation any syllable would be understood. There are, too, a few typographical errors, as on page 26 of the same book, we find "*e* is pronounced like *z*, etc.," when it should be "*c* is pronounced, etc." But these latter errors will undoubtedly be corrected in a new edition. The books before us are simple and well graded; they are not calculated to advance the pupil rapidly, but they are thorough. Those who like Ahn's system will find them valuable for elementary instruction.

THE ANABASIS has been edited by so many of our best Greek scholars, that there would seem to be little need of a new edition. One has, however, just been issued by Sheldon and Company, the excellence of which fully justifies its publication. The accuracy of the text we take for granted from the reputation of the editor, A. C. Kendrick, LL.D., of the University of Rochester. A map drawn by Kiepert shows the route of the Ten Thousand, and a table of dates, distances, etc., taken from the small edition of Macmichael,

serves as a table of contents, and an index. The notes are designed to aid the student in comprehending the construction of the language, and not merely to aid in translation. The type is clear, a great thing in Greek. Altogether it strikes us as a welcome addition to our list of school books.

JOHN WILEY & SON have published an edition of *Cæsar*, of which the distinctive characteristic is its *ordo*; the Latin arranged in the English order. It is placed at the end of the book, and is designed to assist the student in the preparation of the lesson. The idea of such an *ordo* strikes us as radically wrong. If a pupil is to learn Latin, we do not see why he should not study it as it really is, and not as rearranged. It would be much the same as if a German should have his English placed in the German order and say, "I will you a nice story tell if you quiet are." The whole idea of this book seems to be to help the student to find out the meaning of the words, and not to understand the construction. The notes are arranged upon the same principle. The tendency of such a book is to substitute superficial for thorough knowledge, and we would be very sorry to see its principles generally adopted.

THE ANCIENT HEBREWS, by Abraham Mills, A.M., recounts the career of that nation from the calling of Abraham to the dispersion of the Jews. For authorities the author relies principally upon the Bible, but for the latter five hundred years of the history, upon the writings of Josephus of Jerusalem, and Philo of Alexandria. Being a compendium of ancient sacred history, this book will be particularly acceptable to those engaged in religious study or instruction. It is well written, and the author may be said to have accomplished his aim—"to blend the most solemn and impressive lessons of instruction with the pleasures and advantages of historical information."

WILSON, HINKLE & CO. have published a good collection of plays for schools, entitled, "The School Stage." The pieces are such as can easily be acted, and the requirements in the way of properties are within the reach of any school. The tone of the selections is healthful, and the humor is free from buffoonery.

MISCELLANEA.

PROF. TAYLER LEWIS is to deliver a course of lectures the coming winter before the students of Rutgers College and the Theological Seminary at New Brunswick, on the subject of "Modern Infidelity." This lectureship was founded by the late Mr. Vedder, of Utica, N. Y., and a course of lectures is to be delivered annually hereafter on some subject kindred to that assigned for the present year.

THE "Skolski Prijately" and the "Srbskanarodna Skola" are the names of two Croatian educational journals.

THE class just entered at Cornell is much larger than either of the two preceding it. It numbers 200; 18 of whom enter on certificates from other colleges, 15 are Brazilians, and 15 are ladies, the number of feminine students being thus increased to 31.

WILSON, the vocalist, was upset in his carriage near Edinburgh. A Scotch paper, after recording the accident, said: "We are happy to state that he was able to appear on the following evening in three pieces."

THE *Maine Journal of Education* keeps up with the times. The October number informs its readers that "Prof. David Murray, of Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J., sailed from San Francisco, May 21st, for Japan."

SECRETARY BELKNAP, it is stated, has engaged James Parton, the historian, to arrange for the publication of the original manuscript papers of General Washington, which recently came into the possession of the War Department. Among the papers is the original book used by General Washington when he was in command of the army in the field.

A YOUNG German savant, Dr. Strack, at present at St. Petersburg, has been charged by the Russian government to collate the valuable manuscripts of the Old Testament preserved in the library of that city. He has the intention of photographing and publishing, with annotations, the most interesting of these documents.